

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LXIV

*

DECEMBER 1956

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Number 9

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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EDUCATION OF THE GIFTED

FROM time to time the educational world is confronted with a special area of sensitivity. Today it appears to be the education of the gifted. Educational journals include an increasing number of articles on the subject. Books and monographs are making their appearance. More and more educational conferences are devoting all or part of their attention to the problem. Space limitations in these columns preclude extended treatment of the topic or a review of the current literature. The writer will confine his remarks to some observations and questions.

An examination of the literature on the education of the gifted reveals at once our preoccupation with manpower. Visitors to Russia return with frightening accounts of the mass training of future scientists. We are told that in self-defense we must step up the "production" of scientists. In this country, manpower studies show a shortage, present and potential, of trained personnel in many critical fields: engineering, medicine, teaching, nursing, and occupations requiring skilled technicians, to mention some of the more prominent ones. The argument runs something like this: If Russia is gaining on us or surpassing us in the production of young scientists, we must identify the gifted youth among us and make scientists of

them. To put the matter bluntly, and possibly a bit unfairly: Let us produce young scientists and stockpile them against a possible threat. Our expanding economy is in need of trained manpower in vital areas. Let us identify the gifted, induce them to go to college by liberal scholarships, and train them for the niches in our national life where they are needed. The gifted are to be equated with manpower, and manpower, we say, is our richest resource. Oil, water, minerals, land—yes, these are resources, but the richest of all is our manpower!

We repeat: this is stating the case bluntly, and perhaps a bit unfairly. But the issue should be clear. Are there any dangers in treating manpower as a resource—like oil, water, and minerals? To put the matter another way, is *man* to be equated with *manpower*? Are the gifted now to be singled out and stockpiled for the national good?

The foregoing representation of much of the current thinking about the education of the gifted is not intended to minimize the manpower problem in our country, nor to gainsay the possible threat to free nations if totalitarian countries surpass us in training scientists. The writer wishes merely to express a word of caution lest we forget some of the highest ideals we cherish about man as man, not man as manpower.

The gifted, to be sure, are a priceless

treasure—as are all men before God. But any valid program in a democracy for the identification, training, and “utilization” of the gifted must differentiate between man and uranium. The gifted, like everyone else, must be protected from exploitation for “the common good” and given the fullest opportunity for self-realization. Individualism has long been one of our cherished core values. We must never look upon the gifted, nor anyone else, as a commodity whose highest purpose is to serve the common good. That is the beguiling road to serfdom. Before collectivism in all its forms and manifestations began to sweep the earth like some ominous wave of the future, rugged individualism was a respectable virtue. The eroding influence of collectivist ideology could easily blunt our sensitivity to the sacredness of the individual in an uncritical approach to the education of the gifted.

This is not to minimize the importance of programs for the education of the gifted. Quite the contrary! Provision of appropriate programs for the education of the gifted at all educational levels constitutes one of the most crucial and challenging problems facing school people. This editorial comment is intended only to suggest a need for critical examination of the premises on which the programs are founded.

Happily, some of the current literature on manpower and the education of the gifted indicates a growing awareness of the complexity of the problem. In the September, 1956, issue of the *NEA Journal*, Herbert G. Espy says:

Some teachers fear that attention to manpower needs may rob education of some cherished ideals. That fear should not be lightly disregarded. Indeed, teachers whose memories run back over the years could cite the record of educational history to show that attention to manpower needs can be so narrow as to result in unhappy school practices.

But the danger rises not so much from the nature of the challenge as from the manner in which teachers respond to it. If teachers and administrators holding many points of view all give their attention to the manpower problem—

studying it, discussing it, laboring with it—the results will be wholesome. . . .

That sort of co-operative attention is a good guaranty that traditional democratic values will be preserved. Perhaps we should remind ourselves that the values of a democracy are challenged by every occasion for social change.

Teachers who cherish democratic ideals have an obligation to relate them to the solution of manpower problems. If they do so, it may well happen that efforts to solve the manpower problem can lead to the improvement of education and an increase in the vitality of its democratic traditions.

Our concern here for preserving and protecting individuality among the gifted should in no wise be interpreted as saying our concern is restricted to them. A. Harry Passow, associate professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, writing in the June, 1956, issue of *New York State Education*, makes this point clear:

The basic goal of our schools—to cultivate the potential of each child in ways consonant with the individual's self-fulfilment and the requirements of society—has always been interpreted to be equally true for all children.

The center of interest today appears to be the gifted child. With Passow we ask:

In what ways, then, do educational objectives for the gifted differ from those for other children? What should the gifted child become, or what imperatives should he attain, if he is to know self-fulfilment and the satisfaction of high social contribution?

COLLEGE STUDY IN HIGH SCHOOL

ONE of the promising programs for meeting the needs of gifted students is the offering of college-level courses for college credit in high school. Teachers and school administrators have long known that an appreciable number of high-school students are capable of pursuing college-level studies. But the problems of providing appropriate offerings in the high school and of inducing colleges to accept these courses for credit have been considerable obstacles.

The Advanced Placement Program, of-

ferred under the auspices of the College Entrance Examination Board, is an effort to overcome these obstacles. The program is designed to enable high-school students to undertake, while still in high school, academic work commensurate with their abilities and to assist colleges in evaluating the work for advanced-standing credit.

The program is fully described in a recent booklet of 136 pages entitled *Advanced Placement Program* published by the College Entrance Examination Board. Included in the book are (1) an explanation of the program, (2) descriptions of the twelve college-level courses, and (3) sample examination questions for the courses.

The booklet is intended to assist secondary schools interested in establishing special courses for able students and for colleges which welcome Freshmen who are ready for advanced academic work. The import of this program for meeting the needs of gifted students warrants including in these columns the following fairly extensive excerpt:

The Advanced Placement Program originated in the School and College Study of Admission with Advanced Standing; as an activity of the College Board it retains the flexible and responsive character of an exploratory project. Supported from 1952 to 1955 by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, the Study did four things. It assisted in the organization of new college-level courses in a small group of public and independent schools; it examined the students who took these courses; it effected an agreement among 12, and later 15, colleges to give credit and placement to students who did satisfactory work in these courses and examinations; it sponsored conferences for school and college teachers. As the Study progressed, additional schools equipped to do such work set up advanced courses and their graduates entered colleges and universities throughout the country. In 1954, 18 schools had 532 students who took 959 examinations and entered 94 colleges; in 1955, the corresponding numbers were 38 schools, 925 students, 1,522 examinations, and 134 colleges.

In the spring of 1955 the College Board was asked to continue the work of the Study under the Board's national auspices. Encouraged by the assurances of schools and colleges that the

program was of great educational value and assisted by a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, the Board voted to assume responsibility for the Advanced Placement Program beginning with the academic year 1955-56. By its action it reaffirmed the confidence of the Study "that school and college teachers who undertake to share the responsibility of educating our gifted students as they should be educated will not only contribute to the founding of strong and mutually beneficial school and college relations, but will help to establish a standard of education in which the nation can take pride."

The program can best be understood in terms of the individual able student, for it exists as an aid to the recognition of his particular academic talents and their continuous development through school and college. The examination part of the program is open to any able student, wherever he may be and whether he achieved his knowledge through his own efforts, or tutorial assistance, or special school courses. It is expected, however, that most advanced-standing students will receive their training in college-level courses offered to qualified students by their schools.

The program begins in the schools with the establishment of college-level courses which constitute its essential link in educational communication between schools and colleges. These typical first-year college courses are discussed in the second part of this booklet. Advanced courses now covered by the program, one or more of which were offered by some 80 schools throughout the country in 1955-56, are in 12 fields: English Composition, Literature, French, German, Latin, Spanish, American History, European History, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics.

A study of the course descriptions will show that the committees of school and college teachers which prepared them and the examinations based on them have allowed for a considerable degree of difference in the patterns of study which may be developed by the schools. The teachers in a school considering the establishment of advanced courses should consult the course descriptions and communicate both with other schools which have already set up such courses and with the appropriate departments of some of the colleges attended by its students. The Program Director of the Advanced Placement Program, College Entrance Examination

Board, 425 West 117th Street, New York 27, New York, will be happy to acquaint any interested school with other schools which have had experience with this program.

THE MERIT SCHOLARS

A RECENT BROCHURE entitled *The Merit Scholars of 1956* announces the results of one of the greatest hunts for talent in our nation's history. It contains the names of the 556 winners selected through a nationwide search for students of outstanding ability. Some 11,000 high schools entered nearly 60,000 of their best representatives in the toughest private scholarship competition ever launched. The Merit Scholars survived two rigorous college-aptitude tests, had outstanding high-school records, and, in many cases, were teen-age leaders in their communities.

This fall, checks totaling \$515,000 were mailed to the 556 Merit Scholars and to the colleges they are attending. The amount of financial help that each Merit Scholar received was based upon his personal need, ranging from an honorary award of \$100 to \$2,100 a year. About a third of the winners were found to be able to attend the college of their choice with the minimum aid of \$100 a year; a quarter of the Merit Scholars received \$1,000 or more a year; and 10 per cent received upward of \$1,400 a year. The average was \$630 for the year. A somewhat unique feature of this scholarship program is the provision for cash grants directly to the college, in addition to the scholarship, to help the institution meet the costs of educating the student not covered by the tuition.

The Merit Scholars were free to select any accredited college or university and to choose any course of study. Sixty-eight per cent of the boys and 13 per cent of the girls chose engineering and the physical sciences. Physics was found to be the most popular choice among the boys. Of the winners, 72 per cent are boys and 28 per cent girls.

The non-profit National Merit Scholarship Corporation was established in 1955 with initial grants of \$20,500,000. It is un-

derwritten for a ten-year period. Besides providing some \$2,000,000 per year in scholarship awards, the Merit Program serves as a clearing-house for many companies who grant merit scholarships of their own.

The 1957 competition is already under way. Seniors from 13,000 high schools are expected to enter the 1957 competition. The first hurdle was a screening examination on October 24.

School people will find *The Merit Scholars of 1956* an interesting document. The Merit Scholars are listed by state and, within each state, alphabetically by city. The listing also gives the winner's high school, the college of his choice, and his major field of study. The office of the National Merit Scholarship Corporation is located at 1580 Sherman Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.

CAREER CHOICES OF GIFTED STUDENTS

THROUGHOUT these editorial comments, concern has been expressed over the career choices of gifted students. Do scholarship inducements and sharpened awareness of manpower needs tend to direct the gifted into the so-called "critical fields"? As a case in point, the Merit Scholars were free to choose their colleges and their fields of study. Even so, 68 per cent of the boys and 13 per cent of the girls chose engineering and physical-science courses.

Another indication of vocational preferences of able students is to be found in a study of the career choices of 12,154 (5,280 boys and 6,874 girls) of the nation's top high-school students. These students supplied information on career choices in connection with an annual scholarship competition administered by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

The selective character of this student population is indicated by the fact that the subjects had to be "college-bound Seniors who stood in the highest 5 per cent of their class and who were members of the National Honor Society." These students were asked what "they expected to major in at college

and what career they hoped to follow." Educators should be pleased to learn that teaching ranked highest, with 30 per cent choosing this field. Engineering, science research, and medicine followed. The fact that nearly a third chose teaching is heartening, but what is even more encouraging is that this choice was made by able students, the top 5 per cent of high-school graduating classes.

Readers who may be interested in the more detailed report on the career choices of these able students will find the study reported in an article entitled "Top Students To Enter Critical Fields," by Paul E. Elicker and Walter E. Hess, appearing in the September, 1956, issue of the *NEA Journal*.

SCHOOLROOMS PAST AND PRESENT

IN THIS DAY of rapidly expanding school plants, educators and lay citizens alike will welcome the opportunity to see a traveling exhibit of classrooms past and present.

Sponsored jointly by the Henry Ford Museum and Greenfield Village and the *Encyclopedia Americana*, the two-car display presents a colorful contrast between the lot of the school teacher in the early 1800's and today. It shows vividly the tremendous improvement in teaching materials and facilities. One of the railroad cars, eighty-six feet long, contains a pioneer log-cabin school of the early 1800's, a rural school of the 1870's, and a city-school classroom of the 1890's. The other car has an up-to-date kindergarten, elementary classroom, industrial-arts laboratory, office-practice room, and a home-economics unit. The old classrooms contain all the paraphernalia of early school days: open fireplaces, whale-oil lamps, birch whips, dunce caps, and McGuffey readers.

The exhibit was first shown in Washington, D.C., in September, 1955. A year later it had been seen by nearly 700,000 persons. During the summer months it was on display at Greenfield Village, Dearborn, Michigan. This fall the traveling exhibit began its second tour and will cover twelve states:

Pennsylvania, West Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, Tennessee, Mississippi, Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio.

In addition to dramatizing schoolroom advances in the last 150 years, the exhibit is designed to encourage interest in the teaching profession. Interested persons may obtain a copy of the itinerary by writing the Public Relations Office, Henry Ford Museum and Greenfield Village, Dearborn, Michigan.

SCIENCE TAKES TO THE ROAD

THE Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies announced this fall a unique project designed to stimulate interest in science and science-teaching careers on the part of the nation's secondary-school students.

The Oak Ridge Traveling Science Demonstration Lecture Program is staffed by seven carefully selected science teachers, who will tour the forty-eight states in well-equipped, mobile, science laboratories. Each teacher has been provided, through the courtesy of the Ford Motor Company, with a fully equipped six-passenger station wagon. The teachers will carry with them more than eight hundred pounds of demonstration equipment designed and built by the teachers during the Oak Ridge training period last summer. Some of the items have been constructed to show students and science teachers the feasibility of making inexpensive apparatus for school use. One item is an X-ray machine costing \$2.50 and another a homemade Geiger counter constructed for less than \$10.00.

Each of the seven teachers has been assigned a specific territory embracing several states. He will visit high schools in his assigned area, spending a week in each. At each school the traveling teacher will give special lectures and demonstrations before science classes, designed to provide, simply and graphically, up-to-date information in many fields of science, from elementary chemistry to the principles of space travel.

The teachers will also hold sessions and consultations with the science staff and other faculty members as a means of improving teaching techniques.

The seven teachers expect to visit between 200 and 250 high schools in the forty-eight states and District of Columbia during the present school year. School people interested in this program may obtain information concerning the itinerary of the seven teachers by writing Information Department, Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies, P.O. Box 117, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

STATUS FOR THE U.S. COMMISSIONER

SCHOOL PEOPLE will be encouraged by current proposals to improve the status of the Office of the United States Commissioner of Education. Career status for the post has been proposed in a resolution presented to Secretary Marion Folsom, of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, by the Advisory Committee of National Organizations (a group formed last year following the White House Conference on Education and representing twenty-three educational associations and organizations).

The Advisory Committee believes that certain changes need to be made to attract and hold "professionally qualified" persons. The proposal envisions that the commissioner of education be appointed to terms of "five to seven years," placing the commissionership on a par with such other federal posts as that of the U.S. Surgeon General. Inherent in the proposal is the removal of

the post from the realm of political appointments. The resolution includes a recommendation that the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare support legislation calling for a substantial increase in the salary of the commissioner.

It is to be hoped that action will be prompt and positive. Education as an enterprise commands no less.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO DINNER

THE Department of Education of the University of Chicago will hold a dinner for alumni, former students, and friends during the convention of the American Association of School Administrators meeting in Atlantic City. The dinner will be held at 6:00 P.M. on Tuesday, February 19, 1957, in the Ozone Room of the Hotel Dennis.

The dinner will afford alumni, friends, and members of the Department an opportunity to renew acquaintances and to learn about new plans for the continued development and strengthening of the Department. Those who plan to attend the dinner are urged to make advance reservations by sending a check or money order to Harold A. Anderson, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois. The price of the dinner is \$5.00. Make checks payable to the University of Chicago.

The Department of Education will maintain headquarters during the AASA Convention from February 16 through February 21 in Rooms 1 and 3 at Hotel Dennis.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

EFFECTIVENESS OF DEPARTMENTAL AND SELF-CONTAINED SEVENTH- AND EIGHTH-GRADE CLASSROOMS

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THE PROBLEM of the investigation reported in this article may be stated thus: When children reach the departmentalized ninth grade of the junior high school, are the academic achievement and the school adjustment of pupils who have gone through the departmentalized seventh and eighth grades in the junior high school superior to the academic achievement and the school adjustment of children entering the same school from elementary schools having self-contained seventh- and eighth-grade classrooms?

Children entering the ninth grade of a junior high school in Newark, New Jersey, from elementary schools with self-contained non-departmental classrooms in the seventh and eighth grades were matched with children who had been in the completely departmentalized seventh and eighth grades of the junior high school. The records of the two groups in the ninth grade were then compared. It was hypothesized that two years spent in the departmental setup of the junior high school should have given the departmental children in this study the advantage, at least with regard to academic achievement and school adjustment, in the ninth grade at the same school.

The junior high school at which this study was made is in an underprivileged area of the city. Findings of similar studies in different socioeconomic areas might well be different from those reported herein.

FACTORS USED IN MATCHING

Matching factors used in this study were: sex, home room (in the departmentalized

junior high school the home-room classes traveled as units), course of study, ninth-grade subject teachers, intelligence quotient, chronological age, eighth-grade academic record (teachers' marks), eighth-grade personality ratings (by home-room teachers), and a "family-score" derived from a simple, twelve-question questionnaire.

The mean scores for the two groups of children on the last five factors are shown in Table 1. Although socioeconomic status was not used as a matching factor, after the groups had been set up it was shown that the two groups were comparable in this regard, and the mean scores for this factor are included in Table 1. The last column in the table shows the *t* value for each comparison. Values of *t* of 2.02 or more would indicate differences that are significant at the 5 per cent level or less. It will be noted that none of the differences between the two groups was significant.

FACTORS USED IN MAKING NINTH-GRADE COMPARISONS

Academic achievement.—Forty-one pairs remained after all the matching criteria had been considered. These pairs were then compared as they went through the ninth grade at the junior high school. Their academic achievement was recorded in terms of teachers' marks in three major subjects at the end of each six-week marking period.

School adjustment.—School adjustment in the ninth grade was defined in terms of personality ratings by home-room teachers and a count of the number of children in the

home room who named each child in the study as one of their "three best friends in the home room." School adjustment was negatively defined in terms of the number of school problems each child checked and in terms of the number of times each child was referred to the office or grade counselor for correction or advice. It was assumed that those who reported many problems and those who were referred frequently were poorly adjusted to the school situation.

The hypothesis adopted indicated that the departmental children should do better than their non-departmental mates. This

ratings (although, regarding this factor alone, the difference is no greater than it had been in the eighth grade), had more friends, reported fewer school problems, and were referred to the office less frequently than were their departmental matchees. This was so in spite of the fact that the non-departmental children had moved to a new school situation and were facing a departmental situation for the first time.

The data, then, indicate that the hypothesis that the departmental children would do "better" than their non-departmental matchees in the ninth grade could

TABLE 1
MEAN SCORES AND VALUES OF *t* ON FACTORS USED IN
MATCHING FORTY-ONE PAIRS OF PUPILS

FACTOR	MEAN SCORES		DIFFERENCE	<i>t</i>
	Departmental Pupils	Non-departmental Pupils		
Intelligence quotient.....	91.60	92.30	-0.70	-1.74
Chronological age as of September, 1954 (in months).....	175.40	174.50	.90	1.61
Eighth-grade marks in English, mathematics, and social studies.....	3.32	3.41	-.09	-.27
Personality rating by eighth-grade teachers on co-operation, industry, emotional stability....	4.27	4.61	-.34	-.89
Family score from family-life questionnaire....	11.00	11.60	-.60	-1.71
Socioeconomic status, after a modification of the Sims Score Card.....	21.54	20.59	0.95	0.69

means that their academic achievement scores should be higher, as should their personality ratings and peer-acceptance scores. On the other hand, to do "better" than their mates, these departmental children should report *fewer* school problems and should be referred *less* frequently than their non-departmental matchees.

FINDINGS FOR THE FIRST TERM IN THE NINTH GRADE

It will be noted from Table 2 that the hypothesis could not be accepted in any respect. In every respect examined, the mean score for the non-departmental children indicated their superiority to the departmental children. They made better academic records, received higher personality

not be accepted. As a matter of fact, the findings indicate that the non-departmental group in this study was actually superior to the departmental group in certain important ways. Differences of statistically significant size favored the non-departmental children in this study with regard to the ninth-grade academic record for the first marking period, the number of friends in January, and the number of school problems checked in January. This first-term record, then, indicates some important advantages for the non-departmental group in this study of ninth-grade academic achievement and school adjustment. An examination of the findings for the second ninth-grade term will serve to show whether this superiority was consistent and lasting.

FINDINGS FOR SECOND TERM
IN NINTH GRADE

At the end of the first term, fourteen pairs were lost to this study for various reasons. Two departmental members and three non-departmental members changed to easier courses of study. One departmental member left school during the second term ("personal health" was given as the reason), and four non-departmental members moved out of the district at the change of terms.

health," changes to easier courses, and term failures could be so classified. An examination of the first-term records of pairs lost for these reasons was made. It was found that non-departmental children who were rated low academically tended to change to easier courses more frequently than did lower-rated departmental children. Non-departmental children with lower first-term personality ratings tended to change to easier courses or to fail of promotion more frequently than

TABLE 2
COMPARISON DATA ON FORTY-ONE PAIRS OF PUPILS FOR
FIRST TERM OF NINTH GRADE

FACTOR	MEAN		DIFFERENCE	
	Departmental Pupils	Non-departmental Pupils		
Academic record (teachers' marks in three major subjects):				
First marking period.....	2.56	3.61	-1.05	-2.06*
Second marking period.....	2.73	3.71	-.98	-1.71
Third marking period.....	2.93	3.93	-1.00	-1.94
Personality ratings by home-room teachers in January.....	3.39	3.73	-.34	-.74
Peer acceptance (number of times each child was chosen as "one of three best friends in home room"):				
In October.....	2.24	2.71	-.47	-1.10
In January.....	2.90	3.95	-1.05	-2.35*
Number of school problems checked:				
In October.....	6.02	4.88	1.14	1.38
In January.....	5.20	3.63	1.57	2.07*
Number of referrals to grade counselor and vice-principal (through January).....	1.20	0.59	0.61

* Differences marked with asterisks are significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence.

One departmental and one non-departmental member were changed to new home-room situations, and both pairs had to be dropped from the study. In addition, a non-departmental member changed to a harder program of courses and one non-departmental member was not promoted. These changes resulted in a reduction from forty-one to twenty-seven in the total number of pairs fulfilling all the criteria used in matching.

It was believed that some of these losses could be attributed to failures (partial or complete) on the part of the children involved. Leaving school because of "personal

did departmental children. Some of the more popular non-departmental children were lost at this point because their less popular matches either changed to an easier course or left school.

This examination, too, led to the finding that the "nonconformists" (children who had been frequently referred for advice and correction) among the non-departmental children seemed to show much less staying power in this study than did nonconforming departmental children. These losses resulted in slight changes in the findings for the second term with regard to academic success, personality ratings, peer-acceptance scores,

and referrals to the office.

Table 3 presents second-term data for the twenty-seven remaining pairs with regard to academic achievement, teacher-prepared personality ratings, peer acceptance, number of problems checked in June, and number of referrals to the office for correction and advice during the second term. Analysis of these scores indicates that some selective process had been operating. Both groups made better academic records than the larger groups had made for the first term. The differences between the groups for the

difference, however, still favored the non-departmental children.

Both groups reported fewer school problems in June than had the larger groups in January, but the advantage in this regard, too, remained with the non-departmental children. The difference in number of referrals to the office was more marked for this second term than it had been during the first term. There were, in all, twenty-eight such referrals among the departmental children remaining, and only five among the non-departmental children remaining in the

TABLE 3
COMPARISON DATA ON TWENTY-SEVEN PAIRS OF PUPILS
FOR SECOND TERM OF NINTH GRADE

FACTOR	MEAN		DIFFERENCE	t
	Departmental Pupils	Non-departmental Pupils		
Academic record (teachers' marks in three major subjects):				
Fourth marking period.....	2.85	4.00	-1.15	-2.08*
Fifth marking period.....	2.78	4.15	-1.37	-2.41*
Sixth marking period.....	3.04	4.26	-1.22	-2.72*
Personality ratings by home-room teachers in June.....	3.00	3.74	-.74	-1.56
Peer acceptance (number of times each child was chosen as "one of three best friends in home room") in June.....	2.89	3.52	-.63	-1.30
Number of school problems checked in June....	4.82	3.15	1.67	1.63
Number of referrals to grade counselor and vice-principal, February through June.....	1.04	0.19	0.85	4.08*

* Differences marked with asterisks are significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence.

second term, however, were greater. The non-departmental group was superior to the departmental group for every marking period during the second term by statistically significant amounts.

Because of the elimination of a larger number of low-rated non-departmental children than low-rated departmental children, the difference in personality ratings favored the non-departmental group more decisively in this regard. With regard to peer acceptance, it has been noted that some of the more popular non-departmental children were lost at the change in term because their departmental matchees had defaulted. The

study. The reason for the greater difference in this regard for the second term has been indicated earlier: the departmental "nonconformists" apparently had greater staying power than did the "nonconformists" among the non-departmental children. The non-departmental "nonconformists" were lost to this study, as were their more conforming matchees.

A confirmatory study.—A study comparing the increments in arithmetic growth and reading growth during the seventh grade in a self-contained classroom of one of the feeding elementary schools with these increments in the departmental classrooms of the junior

high school was made. It was found that the children in the self-contained classroom gained more in these fundamental areas than did their matchees in the junior high school. However, the difference in increment was statistically significant only with regard to growth in arithmetic ability. Although the difference in reading growth favored the non-departmental group, this difference was not statistically significant.

RELATIONS AMONG FACTORS

Correlation coefficients were computed for some of the factors reported. Each of the matching factors (eighth-grade academic records, eighth-grade personality ratings, intelligence quotient, chronological age, and family score) was correlated with some of the ninth-grade comparison factors. Then each comparison criterion was correlated with the other comparison criteria.

Some coefficients were found to be significant. The highest of these was the coefficient of correlation (.717) between the eighth-grade academic record and the ninth-grade academic record. A high coefficient (.713) was also found between eighth-grade personality ratings and ninth-grade personality ratings. Both eighth-grade academic record ($-.517$) and eighth-grade personality ratings ($-.607$) were negatively correlated with the number of referrals to the office in the ninth grade. In addition, the eighth-grade academic record was related to the ninth-grade personality ratings (.597), and the eighth-grade personality ratings were related to the ninth-grade academic record (.544).

There were two relations that appeared only in the departmental group of children. A negative correlation ($-.437$) was found between the eighth-grade academic record and the number of school problems reported in the ninth grade. There was a slight but statistically significant relation between eighth-grade personality ratings and the number of friends in the ninth grade (.342).

Chronological age was related only to the number of referrals to the office in the ninth

grade (.401), and this was true only in the non-departmental group. The older non-departmental children tended to be referred more frequently than their younger colleagues. The intelligence quotient was related positively to ninth-grade academic achievement (.425) but only in the departmental group. Intelligence quotient was negatively related to the number of referrals to the office ($-.337$), but only in the non-departmental group.

Of all the matching factors used in this study, the eighth-grade academic records and the eighth-grade personality ratings were the most valuable predictors of ninth-grade achievement and adjustment.

With regard to interrelations between the various comparison criteria, there was a close relation (.692) between academic records in the ninth grade and personality ratings in the ninth grade. These two factors were correlated negatively ($-.577$ and $-.608$, respectively) with the number of referrals to the office in the ninth grade. In addition, there was a tendency for the departmental children with good academic ($-.382$) and good personality ($-.394$) ratings in the ninth grade to report fewer school problems.

A FOLLOW-UP STUDY

There were thirty pairs of children, of the original forty-one, who went on to high school at the end of the ninth grade. These pairs were followed up at the end of the first half of the first term in senior high school.

It was found that the children who had been referred frequently in the junior high school had already been referred to the office in the senior high school (with only one exception), while their more conforming matchees had not. The departmental group did slightly better than the non-departmental group with regard to teacher marks for the first marking period in the high school, but the difference was not statistically significant. An analysis of the pairs lost (of the original forty-one) before high school showed that this result was due to the loss

of certain less successful departmental children. It is possible that their superior staying power did not last beyond graduation from the junior high school.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study of a junior high school in an underprivileged area in Newark, New Jersey, children who had been in a departmental setup in the seventh and eighth grades did not do better, academically and with regard to school adjustment, when they reached the ninth grade than did their matchees who had been in self-contained classrooms in the seventh and eighth grades. There was evidence that the children from self-contained seventh- and eighth-grade classrooms did better by statistically significant amounts in some areas: they did better

academically; they made more friends by the end of the first term; they reported fewer school problems by the end of the first term; and they were referred for advice and correction less frequently than their matchees.

These findings raise questions about the desirability of continuing to operate junior high schools with completely departmentalized seventh- and eighth-grade classrooms, particularly in underprivileged areas similar to the one in which this school is located. Doubt is thrown on the readiness of seventh-grade children for full departmentalization in terms of what happens to them in the ninth grade. It is recommended that this study be repeated in schools representing various socioeconomic areas.

TEN YEARS OF RESEARCH ON THE CORE PROGRAM

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THE record reads: 53 dissertations completed in 10 years in 24 institutions of higher learning—17 of them in 1946-50 and 36 in 1951-55. Fifty-three dissertations devoted entirely or in large part to the core program over a period of ten years may not seem an impressive number when compared with the numbers completed annually in subject areas, but, when viewed in the light of the small number of institutions preparing trainees to teach core, it assumes considerable significance. The doubling of the number of doctoral researches completed in this field in the five-year period, 1951-55, over the preceding period, 1946-50, and the relatively large number and wide geographical distribution of universities in which the studies were prepared indicate increasing and widespread interest.

Research in the core program as represented by the fifty-three doctoral dissertations covers a variety of school situations, subjects, and approaches. There are fourteen researches that concern single schools and twenty-three developed around more than one school. The remaining sixteen studies are general in nature. Of the studies developed around actual school situations, thirteen deal with the program in the high school, ten with that in the junior high school, and fourteen with both the junior and the senior high school.

The researches distribute themselves over a wide range of aspects of the core program and its development. Classified into broad categories, the distribution is roughly as shown in Table 1.

Although the studies do lend themselves to a certain amount of classification, there

is considerable variation in most categories. For example, among the eight doctoral dissertations concerned with initiating and developing the core program is one which studies and evaluates procedures that had been used in adopting the core program in a senior high school (6); a second is an analysis of factors leading to the development of the program in several selected junior high schools (13); three are descrip-

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION ACCORDING TO GENERAL CONTENT OF 53 DOCTORAL DISSERTATIONS ON THE CORE PROGRAM COMPLETED IN 1946-55

General Content	Number of Dissertations
Initiation and development of the program	8
Surveys of status and general appraisals of practice	12
Administration and administrative problems (apart from general development)	5
Content: subject utilization, problem areas	10
Instructional methods and materials	7
Pre-service and in-service teacher education	7
Evaluation of effectiveness	4

tions and appraisals by high-school principals of the development in their respective schools (40, 45, 52); another reports a principal's preplanning for the introduction of the program (44); still another describes the approach at the state level to the development of a program (46); and the last relates to the joint planning of teachers, parents, and pupils before and during the introduction of the program (41).

Three investigators (1, 30, 43) have attempted nationwide surveys of the status of the core program in selected groups of schools. Surveys of practice within an indi-

vidual state usually involve a canvass of a selected group of schools (12, 15, 21, 22, 35, 39, 48, 51, 53).

The administrator's responsibility for the success of the core program is brought sharply into focus in several studies. Following identification of the obstacles to providing general education for senior high school pupils, one investigator (29) relates them directly to the attitudes and practices of administrative leadership and suggests that, if they are to be overcome, considerable revision will be necessary in the preparation, selection, and inducements offered for in-service growth of those responsible for leadership in the schools. Two studies (3, 9) review the administrative procedures and practices adopted in selected schools and suggest effective techniques or guiding principles for the development of a successful program. Growing out of an evaluation of the administrative organization for curriculum development in a city that had adopted the core program are some recommended procedures (11). The fifth study (49) classified under "Administration and administrative problems" seeks to determine the space, furniture, and equipment needs of core classes.

To overcome the chief obstacle to the development and success of the core program, several institutions now provide programs for the preparation of core teachers. Also, in schools or school systems planning or developing a core program, in-service education programs are the rule rather than the exception. Among the fifty-three dissertations, four (8, 19, 37, 38) are directed to pre-service education, and three (5, 25, 42) are concerned with improving the competency of the teacher already in service.

Core replaces English and social studies in most school programs, but it is not bound by them. Other subject areas are drawn upon whenever they can help the class in its study of the core problem. The contributions that individual subjects can make to specific problem areas or activities in core have been determined in several studies (18, 26, 28, 32, 33, 47). In some instances

research resulted in the formulation of a list of problem areas or centers of experience around which a core program might be structured (26, 34, 50). One investigator (17), who sought to discover the philosophical and psychological bases of scope and sequence in the core curriculum, concluded that large-scale construction of scope and sequence is not warranted by present research on the conditions under which behavior occurs. In somewhat the same manner, another investigator (7) studied criteria for selecting subject matter, as found in the literature, to determine whether new-type curriculums are necessarily democratic.

Dissertations in the instructional field are usually of the how-to-do-it type, especially helpful to teachers and supervisors. There is a recommended methodology for teachers making the transition from traditional practices (4); there is a study of the role of the resource unit (20), two studies by consultants of the use of instructional materials (24, 27), one appraising three different types of core classroom procedures (23), and two presenting some promising instructional practices (2, 16).

Assessing the effectiveness of the core program is part of many of the dissertations. Usually the appraisal is through opinionnaires or questionnaires filled in by teachers, pupils, and parents. Only a few studies (10, 14, 31, 36) attempt an objective evaluation of the program in one or more schools. Findings of these studies indicate that, as measured by the tests used, the programs are only moderately successful in promoting growth toward stated goals or in achieving the behavior changes desired.

NEEDED RESEARCH

Wherever the core program is discussed, the question of its relative effectiveness as revealed by the research receives major attention. Educators do not yet have clear answers to this question. For one thing, too few evaluative studies have been attempted. For another, the programs studied too often represent little more than an English-

social-studies fusion. To meet one of the most serious needs in the field, more evaluative studies should involve the type of program that uses the problem-solving approach in genuine problem situations. The program should be one stressing behavioral changes in terms of attitudes, understandings, and appreciations, and the development of skills of critical thinking and effective communication. So long as major emphasis is put upon the acquisition of factual information and scores on standardized achievement tests developed for the conventional curriculum, the objectives of the core program and the philosophy out of which it grew are being overlooked or given only token consideration.

A second area that can profit from additional treatment is classroom procedures effective in producing the learnings inherent in the core concept. This is true even though several important contributions to the field are included here. Translating theory into practice presents so many difficulties to the average teacher that more attention needs to be given to the development of successful instructional practice and to making information available on techniques for overcoming problems that arise. Until the knowledge of, and the ability to use, core teaching techniques become widespread, it is doubtful that, qualitatively speaking, much progress can be made in the development of core programs.

A third question continually asked concerns the extent of the use of the core program in junior and senior high schools. General appraisals and status surveys on a state-wide basis can contribute materially to knowledge in this area. While there are included here a number of studies of the program in selected schools or school districts within states, very few studies have comprehensive state-wide coverage.

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SOME ASPECTS OF CHANGE IN THE PERSONALITY OF THE LEARNER

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MANY KINDS of intellectual change take place in the learner through formal learning experiences. The large number of available studies reflects the extent to which this field has been explored, and current research on the subject is extensive (6). Such general intellectual skills as the ability to analyze, apply, evaluate, and synthesize data and theories in subject fields, such as the social sciences, physical sciences, and humanities, for example, make up the largest part of most formal objectives in present-day secondary-school and college curriculums.

The changes which take place in the emotional needs of the individual are, however, often given only nominal recognition by many educators. Compared with the investigations of the intellectual changes, no research to speak of has been done on the changes in emotional needs which take place in the learner. The closest applicable study seems to be an experiment in attitude changes of students in an eastern college (4). Studies dealing with changes in emotional needs of individuals undergoing psychotherapy are available in abundance, but these changes are usually studied in settings different from that of a formal learning environment.¹

PURPOSE OF PRESENT STUDY

The purpose of this paper is to provide some evidence of this apparently neglected type of change. Evidence will, therefore, be presented for the hypotheses (1) that changes in personality needs take place in a formal learning environment and (2) that

changes of this kind are related to certain cognitive changes.

The problem of what actually does change in the personality of the learner has always been important. The problem of change, whether it be in the character traits of the individual or in his intellectual processes, is fundamental, however defined. Two of many reasons for the importance of changes in affective needs may be mentioned here.

If the hypothesis is confirmed that changes in needs of this kind occur in a formal learning environment, then little justification would seem to exist for the view, still widely held, that nothing except intellectual change is worth considering as an educational objective. According to this view, the only important curriculum objective is that some determinate amount of subject matter, usually highly abstract, be internalized by the learner. Such a one-sided view fails to recognize how the personality as a whole ultimately contributes to the learning process on both an intellectual and an emotional level.

A second reason for the importance of changes in affective needs is that knowledge about the qualitative and quantitative properties of these changes can be ultimately useful in helping the educator to understand the real nature of the relation between the

¹The term "formal learning environment" seemed to be a useful distinction between environments purposely designed to attain certain defined objectives and other environments (for example, the family and the community) less purposely structured, where learning and problem-solving obviously also take place.

learner and the formal learning environment. An ability to predict the rate of changes in needs over time could, for example, be of practical value in modifying the transaction between the learner and the environment in the direction of achieving major curriculum objectives.

METHOD OF THE STUDY

In this study the data about the changes in needs were gathered in a small midwestern liberal arts college. The college was affiliated with the University of Chicago and therefore offered an undergraduate program similar to that of the College of the University of Chicago. At the time the data were gathered, 152 students were enrolled. The campus and the rural community of which it is part are rather isolated. Almost complete absence of outside stimulation compels the students to engage in activities found within the college.

The subjects for the study were 130 students, both men and women, who attended the college from 1951 to 1954. Nearly all were from sixteen to eighteen years of age at the time of admission to the college. Their scholastic potential was high, as evidenced by their placement on entrance tests. Most of the subjects were from urban communities. All were tested in groups over the three-year period at the college. For each subject there were available two or three sets of test scores on three kinds of instruments: a personality inventory, an attitudes inventory, and a series of comprehensive achievement tests. Comparisons to determine the extent

of change were made between initial and retest scores on each instrument.²

The personality inventory used was of the multiple-choice questionnaire type. The inventory items described typical activities in the daily life of a college student. Each of the items was designed to elicit one of a pattern of possible responses (needs). Test items that were used to elicit responses characteristic of a need for order, for example, were:

- 24. Keeping my bureau drawers and desk in perfect order.
- 55. Repeating something I've done to be sure I've done it.
- 63. Being given a specific assignment of work to do rather than a loose general direction.
- 139. Being on time for appointments.

Analysis of a subject's responses to an array of items such as these rests on the assumption that selection of a given item as desirable is symptomatic of a similar underlying tendency or emotional need. The absolute frequency with which a particular class of items is either favorably, or unfavorably, selected by the subject is a quantitative index of need strength. The various classes into which the different needs have been systematically organized form a basic theoretical framework.

A more thorough treatment of the basic theoretical approach of this paper can be found in a recent publication by Stern, Stein, and Bloom (7) and in an earlier publication by Henry Murray (3). Murray originally defined a "need" as "a construct (a convenient fiction or hypothetical concept) which stands for a force . . . a force which organizes perception, apperception, intellection, conation, and action in such a way as to transform in a certain direction an existing, unsatisfying situation." Thus a need may also be considered a characterological end product of a compromise between the instinctual life of the individual and the demands of the environment and may be expressed in overt behavior or as an unconscious process only available through indirect means of detection. The specific pattern

² A summary statistic, given the symbol $|D|$, was used to indicate changes in needs. This statistic was determined by computing the sum of the absolute differences between initial and retest scores on needs. This is a modified application of a general method described by Cronbach and Gleser (1). It is to be noted that $|D|$ is interpreted differently from Pearson's r . A large value of $|D|$ would have as an analogue a small value of r . The correlation between the two is thus equal to $-.92$. The cut-off point, derived from Fisher's table (2), indicates significant change in a value of r of .39 or less. The corresponding value of $|D|$ was determined to be 91 or greater. This value indicates significant change because there is less probability of a relation between variates.

of stimuli evoking a given need, or group of needs, is termed a "press" (plural also "press"). A press may consist of some intrapsychic stimulus or a part of the outer world. A change in needs is conceived of as an alteration in the individual's mode of responding to certain press. In the learning environment, different press may consist in the classroom transactions taking place between students or between students and instructor, the impact of certain subject matter, and so on. Striving is always in terms of some inner motivation, which is basically emotional in nature although at times it may be cognitively articulated.

TABLE 1
AMOUNT OF SIGNIFICANT CHANGE
IN NEEDS SCORES OVER TIME

GROUP TESTED	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	STUDENTS WHOSE NEEDS CHANGED SIGNIFICANTLY	
		Num- ber	Per Cent
1953 entrants:			
Change within first year of residence...	44	12	27
1952 entrants:			
Change within first year of residence...	49	11	22
1952 entrants:			
Change within second year of residence...	49	7	14
1951 entrants:			
Change within third year of residence...	27	3	11

The attitudes inventory is called an inventory of beliefs. It consists of one hundred pseudo-factual items describing ideational tendencies that are politically and socially divided along certain clearly defined issues.

The comprehensive achievement tests measure attainment of such intellectual skills as knowledge, comprehension, analysis, synthesis, and application and evaluation in the fields of the humanities, the social sciences, and the physical sciences. Data on the reliability and validity of these three instruments are reported elsewhere (7) and are omitted here for the sake of brevity. These instruments are highly reliable.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The findings that are to be presented should be considered as a description of one instance of personality change in a learning environment, rather than as an indication of a situation general to all environments of this kind. General inferences to other populations are limited by lack of supporting data from control groups, and conclusions can be drawn only regarding this environment. This experimental restriction does not, however, reduce the illustrative value of the findings. The findings are reliable indications of changes in the personalities of the students.

Hypothesis 1.—The first group of data, presented in Table 1, indicate that approximately one-fourth of the students changed significantly in their personality needs during the first year in college, as measured by the personality inventory. This may be interpreted as one index of the impact on the students of the learning environment (classrooms, dormitory residence, other individuals, etc.). It is of interest to note that, while a fourth of the students changed significantly in the first year in the college, only about a seventh changed significantly in their second and third years in the college. It should be remembered that the emphasis here is on the amount of change. Another way of looking at the data is to emphasize the proportion of students who did not change significantly.

These findings underscore much of our present knowledge of the difficulties inherent in students' adaptation to the new environment, especially when the transition is usually an abrupt one for many of the younger students. Many factors are involved, such as the psychological distance between family living and life at the college. The ease with which this gulf is bridged is often an excellent indicator of the real emotional maturity and resourcefulness of the individual. When the transition is inordinately difficult, however, one can almost always discover a neurotic or character-

logical personality difficulty of some kind. These kinds of disturbances will always seriously impede either learning or social adjustment to the extent of requiring additional attention from the educator. Thus preliminary analysis of the kinds of psychological problems confronting the learner in this initial period should at least be a first step toward providing support for those who might fail to adapt.³ The number of changes in needs during this initial period is an indication that this is a formative year in the academic career of the individual.

a modal fashion could be noted in the students over time. This trend did not appear in the whole sample of individuals, but it did show up in many.

The criterion for the modal needs was obtained by computing the mean scores for each of the entire group of theoretical needs used in the personality inventory. In order to insure independence from the experimental group, a separate, and terminal, group of students was chosen. These subjects had been in residence for more than two years. Absolute differences were computed be-

TABLE 2

CHANGES IN ATTITUDES AND ACHIEVEMENT SCORES AS REFLECTED IN SIGNIFICANT CHANGES TOWARD AND AWAY FROM THE MODAL SCORES ON NEEDS

DIRECTION OF CHANGE IN TERMS OF MODAL SCORES ON NEEDS IN ONE YEAR	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN INITIAL AND RETEST SCORES	
		Achievement	Attitudes
Subjects who changed:			
Subjects with scores initially like the modal			
scores who changed contrary to them.....	10	.32	.37
Subjects with scores initially unlike the modal			
scores who changed toward them.....	10	.48	.37
Subjects who did not change:			
Subjects with scores initially like the modal			
scores who did not change.....	11	.73	.64
Subjects with scores initially unlike the modal			
scores who did not change.....	12	.75	.72

Hypothesis 2.—The second hypothesis is that amount of change in needs will be accompanied by concomitant changes in intellectual processes. This hypothesis is related to current thinking that the personality of the learner functions as a unity, rather than in segments, and that changes within the various systems of the personality are in one fashion or another interdependent. Significant changes in personality needs which occurred relative to certain modal personality needs in the environment were interrelated by a cross-tallying procedure with other changes taking place in attitudes and achievement scores. It was hypothesized (1) that some responses to the personality inventory might occur more frequently in this environment than in the usual environment and (2) that a tendency to respond in

tween the non-modal scores of the subjects and the modal criterion scores on needs.

In Table 2 the connection between changes occurring in needs scores relative to the modal needs scores and other changes occurring in attitudes and achievement scores is shown by the differences in the size of the correlation coefficients for the groups revealing changes in needs and the groups not revealing change. The conclusion that various kinds of change in the total personality are interrelated seems acceptable.

Specific needs of certain subjects.—Some statistically significant changes were also noted in the needs scores of 107 of the subjects. These changes, which took place within the first year of residence, may be consid-

³ A basic account of these problems is given by Pearson (5).

ered to be also modal, or typical, responses since this sample is nearly as large as the population itself. The changes indicate the direction which trends in adaptiveness may take during the first year of college. It is worth remembering that different environments would probably evoke quite a different pattern of needs if this same group of subjects were tested again. Different social-

consciousness brought about by new surroundings and people could very well bring this change about. The extensive demands made on the individual, mentioned earlier, could also be instrumental in bringing this change about. The trend toward narcissism is also supported by a decrease in affiliation.

In their "Coping mechanisms" the subjects scored high in aggression and in

TABLE 3
SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN MEAN NEEDS SCORES FOR 107
STUDENTS IN THEIR FIRST YEAR OF COLLEGE

Need*	Direction of Change	Value of <i>t</i>	Probability
Reactions to others:			
Affiliation.....	Decrease	3.454	< .01
Rejection.....	Increase	1.826	< .05
Narcissism.....	Increase	2.333	< .05
Coping mechanisms:			
Succorance.....	Decrease	4.537	< .01
Deference.....	Decrease	5.731	< .01
Abasement.....	Decrease	2.739	< .01
Aggression.....	Increase	3.087	< .01
Autonomy.....	Increase	3.913	< .01
Impulse control:			
Blamavoidance.....	Decrease	6.036	< .01
Energy level:			
Intensity-endurance.....	Increase	2.222	< .05
Ego ideal.....	Decrease	2.666	< .01
Autonomous-homonomous balance:†			
Endocathexis-extracathexis-physical‡	Increase	1.666	< .05
Understanding.....	Increase	1.660	< .05
Self-maintenance:			
Harmavoidance.....	Decrease	2.893	< .01
Organization and integration:			
Order.....	Decrease	2.680	< .01

* The complete theoretical schema of needs can be found in Murray (3) and in Stern, Stein, and Bloom (7).

† This term stands for the differentiation between the individual's self and the non-self, or between the subjective and the objective worlds.

‡ This term stands for the manipulation of learning materials (press) taken from the field of physical sciences through a process of speculative abstract thought or discussion; reflection about the material universe and about theoretical systems; an interest in data collection and inductive reasoning.

emotional climates emphasize different behaviors in individuals as well.

Table 3 indicates those needs scores which changed significantly within this group of 107 subjects. Reliability of the differences between the initial and the retest scores was, in each case, determined by a *t* test between mean needs scores.

In the category "Reactions to others," it can be seen that the group scored high on the need to reject others and on the need for a preoccupation with the self (narcissism) at the end of the first year. Heightened self-

autonomy—two immediate signs of growing independence. This tendency is probably assisted by the absence of parental authority. On the other hand, this tendency coupled with narcissism and rejection could indicate problems within the learning environment. Isolation could be dominant over social adaption due to the effects of many variables unknown at this time. Independence and aggression are supported by low retest scores in succorance, deference, and abasement. The need for blamavoidance—the control of inner impulses to avoid criticism

and disapproval—also decreases.

The changes taking place in the energy level of the students suggest a freeing of impulse. Affect-intensity and endurance as measured by the inventory show an increase. It is interesting to note that the responses to those test items characterizing the ego ideal of the student tend to decrease. It can be argued that, since these items reflect fantasies that are adolescent in nature, this change is away from such ideation and toward adult values encountered in the college. This is often seen in the familiar breakdown of the frequently encountered false sense of security that many students have about the extent of their knowledge and skill. Most students gradually lose this resistance to changes in their self-concept as new materials and people are encountered during the first year.

Certain of the cathectic needs of the students also undergo change in line with known press in the environment. High retest scores on the need "Endocathection-extracathection-physical" shows the expected tendency to cathect knowledge and skills encountered in the natural-sciences sequence—a subject new students invariably encounter during their first year. The increase in the need to understand is expected. The changes in harmavoidance and order are less easily explained at this time because of the paucity of other data about the subjects.

Although additional data are needed for a full evaluation of the effects of an educational environment upon the individuals in it, important material can be obtained from an initial cursory assessment of the environment. From the responses of the subjects as they were taken from the different instruments used, it can be conditionally stated that this environment tends to stimulate a need for autonomy, provides a setting which allows a centering of attention upon the self, permits a free expression of affect, and stimulates a new kind of cathectic relationship between the learner's ego and the environment. It is important to know that these

processes take place. A next step is to determine their exact impact upon the learner, and the lawful relationships that might obtain between the pressive aspects of this type of social structure and the personality of the individuals within it.

CONCLUSIONS

Progress in dealing with the types of problems that have been explored in this paper can best be realized through the implementation of a fully systematic theory of behavior placed within the context of related behavioral disciplines. Thus a perspective is suggested within which consideration must be made not only of the single transactions that occur between the learner and the formal learning environment but also of the entire environment as a separate social structure. Analysis of the transaction between learner and learning environment should, therefore, include as an ultimate plan the coordinated application of sociological, social-psychological, and psychological methods of investigation, that is, study of the individual, the group, and the social system. Since the practical task of the educator, when reconsidered in this light, is really one of maintaining a sensitive balance between several complex forces in the educational environment in order to realize curriculum objectives, neglect of these implications is actually impractical. It is recognized now that, if the learner's immediate psychological needs are too seriously obstructed by forces in the environment, motivation to learn and to change will be absent. This problem of the relation between individual personality and the social structure seems crucial for the educator at this time.

SUMMARY

This paper has briefly explored two hypotheses. One is that changes in personality needs occur in a formal learning environment. The other is that the changes in needs usually do not occur by themselves but are accompanied by cognitive changes of some kind. The chief procedure was to examine

the responses of 130 college students over a period of three years to a number of tests. A personality inventory, an attitudes test, and comprehensive achievement tests were used. Both hypotheses were found acceptable. It was also found that most of the changes in the needs of the students tended to occur during the first year of residence at the college. Finally, a number of significant changes were noted in the individual needs scores of a sample of 107 of the subjects during their first year.

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SELF-CRITICISM IN ART EDUCATION

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ADOLESCENTS have many opportunities to pit their skills against others and to measure up to group standards, but little chance is given them to develop standards that are self-determined.

The art class may become a laboratory wherein the teen-ager has a chance to grow as an individual and to develop his capacity for self-reliance. What Professor Earl C. Kelley has termed "educability" is the ability to give up what one has held on to and to replace it with new patterns.¹ Such ability is the aim of present-day art education, where the responsibility for decisions comes to rest upon the student and where awareness and self-realization are bound up with creative activity. Since the art teacher is to know, rather than to set, the limits of art experience, it means that the major task is left to the student. No assignment based on the teacher's own standards of what is right or good is given. Rather, an art problem, evolved from previous student efforts, is set up, and the class is to solve it.

One of my experiences with a student's struggle to achieve self-reliance occurred when I was a student teacher and has recurred in similar form many times since. A rather shy, quiet boy sat in back of the classroom. Whenever I looked at his work, he quickly hid it from me, without a word. After a few weeks, he began to show the work to me, with apologies.

"It's no good," was his comment.

Gradually, as the boy began to see that I looked to him to state his own problems and that I would not disapprove of his lack of facility, he showed me his work quite readily, and without apology. Then he started to depend on me. He followed me with his work as I went to observe other

students, and if I turned around as I walked down the aisle, I was sure to see him trailing me, art work in hand.

"Is this O.K.? Is this what you want?"

To which I had to answer patiently many, many times, "Is it what *you* want?" or "How do *you* like it?"

This incident represents the increase in flexibility of a student who is permitted that self-propelled growth of which I speak. One day, toward the end of the term, the boy came to me with his work. He looked at me and said, "This isn't exactly what I want, but I think it's O.K."

BARRIERS TO DEVELOPING SELF-CRITICISM

If flexibility increases in a creative atmosphere, then the art class is the place for self-criticism to flourish. If art educators are sincere in believing this, then the art class must truly become a laboratory for the creative person. However, there are factors which thwart the development of self-critical attitudes. Let us examine them.

First, wherever the art class is conducted along mass-production lines, or wherever any one idea or set of ideas prevails as a *modus operandi*, the flexibility of thinking soon disappears, and we might as well not teach art at all. Oppressive working conditions can completely frustrate the creative attempts of students and teacher. Too rigid standards for work or for behavior will stunt the growth of individuals, rather than extend it.

Second, it is observed that students on the secondary-school level are uncertain and lacking in confidence. Most adolescents find self-criticism a disadvantage, because it involves thinking independently and setting their own standards. Some high-school students, when questioned about this, feel un-

¹ Earl C. Kelley, *Education for What Is Real*, p. 52. New York: Harper & Bros., 1947.

comfortable about the absence of external standards ("rightness" and "wrongness") in art, and they miss the sanctions and approbations of the teacher. With the flexibility promoted in a creative atmosphere comes a temporary discomfort until self-discipline replaces external authority. Once the student is able to make his choices, however, he is free, responsible, creatively independent. Once he accepts his own errors, he becomes more able to recognize them and to see his art products, not as polished masterpieces, but rather as steps in his own development. The effect that this kind of self-critical activity has on the integrity of the individual is important, in that it provides him with another tool with which to approach his environment.

The authoritarian personality constitutes another threat to the development of the self-critical approach. Such a student is uncomfortable with himself and resents threats to self-certainty. He may be compulsive or inhibited or both. He looks for external approval and strives to please the teacher.

Art teachers, too, may be guilty of rigidity. Trained in schools where one style of art reigned, they espouse the cause of that style in their teaching and reject any work which is not in that category. Witness exhibitions of student art work where the only interest for the observer lies in discerning which student caught on to the mode first. Furthermore, because of his personality or, more often, because of unbearably large classes, the teacher is forced to rely upon external discipline and arbitrary assignments to maintain an atmosphere of certainty. Any new notion is either totally rejected or absolutely accepted so that he may keep a closed system of thought.

To take the student from one certainty to another is not to put him on his own feet. Whenever absolute certainty is undisturbed, the student makes no choices. Choice is, of course, no simple matter. It is one with the whole creative process. Choice means backtracking, struggling with unknowns, relying upon one's store of visual experiences, grappling with new art materials, and recognizing errors, to mention only a few elements.

Contrast this with the process of following a definite assignment or copying a sketch made by the teacher. The latter consists of accuracy of technique, neatness of work, and correctness of approach.

AIDS FOR DEVELOPING SELF-CRITICISM

If we assume that flexibility is inherent in creative education, where the type of cumulative knowledge required in other areas is replaced by discovering and structuring, along with responsibility for one's own decisions, then we can say that the art teacher is responsible for limiting or defining the field, and the students are responsible for all choices within the bounds of the problem under attack. In such a setup, constant and varied evaluation is the key to student self-realization, as it would be in the work of any creative adult. In the classroom this evaluation may take place in three ways.

First, the student and the teacher are to be in rapport. By visiting the students separately and questioning them about their work, the teacher helps them to gain insights into their problems. Here the non-directive technique can be of great use. Instead of telling the student what is wrong with his work, the art teacher can get him to voice his problems and to question or verbalize his intentions. With such individual attention (possible *only* in small classes), the adolescent will gain confidence and ability in self-criticism.

Second, frequent group discussions, with much questioning and self-questioning, will foster flexible thinking. Students will learn to help one another criticize.

Third, the constant nurturing of visual sensitivity to art and to nature is of paramount importance in the laboratory of the art classroom. Familiarity with the visual world can be gained by exposure to, and impromptu discussion of, new phenomena.

Generally, if the art teacher becomes problem-oriented rather than assignment-centered, students will be self-critical. Thus the art teacher's job is to bring each student from certainty to choice and, in the interest of developing individuality, to cut down arbitrary conformism.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION

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THIS LIST of references is a selection from materials on higher education that have come to the attention of the compiler between July 1, 1955, and June 30, 1956. Institutional histories, annual reports, yearbooks, and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to the problems of colleges and universities have not been included. The compiler has tried to select from the large amount of published material those items which he believes will be most helpful to informed practitioners in the field of higher education and those which deal with problems of continuing interest.

The publications in the field of higher education during the past year have reflected a universal concern about the anticipated consequences of rapidly increasing enrolments in the next few years. The result has been a large body of literature on the staffing, curricular, financial, and instructional problems that will arise as more and more students seek admission to college. The possible effects that larger enrolments will have on the teaching situation are being debated at length. Predictions of dire consequences to education if the small-class system is abandoned are met with proposals of closed-circuit television and other means of communication as possible devices for increasing the influence of the individual teacher.

Recent publications also reflect a continuing concern with the topic of academic freedom and related problems. Less direct attention has been given to the consideration of the philosophic basis of college and university programs than was characteristic of the literature in the past few years.

670. ARMYTAGE, W. H. G. *Civic Universities: Aspects of a British Tradition*. London: Ernest Benn, Ltd., 1955. Pp. 328.

Traces the origin and growth of the civic universities and university colleges of England. Since these institutions comprise all English universities except Oxford, Cambridge, and London, and since their development is intertwined with the latter institutions, this is in effect a history of higher education in England.

671. BEREDAY, GEORGE Z. F. "The Freedom To Attack the Universities," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVII (January, 1956), 8-10.

Contends that the true meaning of academic freedom does not lie in avoiding oppression but in defying it when it comes. Argues that the university professor must be prepared to be attacked, to be investigated, and even to be dismissed in the service of freedom, "if freedom is a living ideal and not a mere cliché."

672. BRUMBAUGH, A. J. "How Can We Use Educational Facilities More Effectively?" *Educational Record*, XXXVII (April, 1956), 102-5.

States that colleges fail to make efficient use of plant facilities; typically, less than half the available student stations are in use. Analyzes factors contributing to such inefficiency and proposes remedies.

673. CONANT, JAMES BRYANT. *The Citadel of Learning*. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1956. Pp. viii+80.

In three essays Conant argues that controversy is essential to a healthy condition in the citadel of learning, contrasts European and American higher education, and discusses two central problems facing American higher education—rapidly increasing enrolments and the need for greater financial resources.

674. EURICH, ALVIN C., TAYLOR, HAROLD, and RICE, WARNER G. "Maintaining and Improving the Quality of Instruction: A Symposium," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVII (May, 1956), 239-55.

Eurich maintains that larger groups of students can be reached effectively through television, large-class demonstrations, and independent-study plans. Taylor defends the small-class system and argues for a greater measure of individualized instruction. Rice pleads for more attention to the development of teaching skills in college teachers.

675. FAUST, CLARENCE. "Main Currents of General Education," *Basic College Quarterly*, I (Fall, 1955), 15-23.

States that the common thread running through the efforts to organize general-education programs is a concern for making people profitably thoughtful, for enlisting them in the human enterprise of reflection, and for making them capable of carrying it on fruitfully.

676. GOULD, SAMUEL B. "Breaking the Thought Barrier," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVI (November, 1955), 401-7.

Affirms that the most pressing task of higher education today is "breaking the thought barrier which keeps young people from realizing their creative potentiality."

677. HAMILTON, THOMAS H., and BLACKMAN, EDWARD (editors). *The Basic College of Michigan State*. East Lansing: Michigan State College Press, 1955. Pp. x+128.

Discusses the rationale of the Basic College, the objectives of the courses which make up this program in general education, and the means employed to achieve these objectives.

678. *Higher Education under Stress: A Symposium*. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. CCCI. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1955. Pp. viii+272.

Twenty-four leaders present views on such matters as administrative organization, higher education and the federal government, academic freedom, trends in tuition and fees, accreditation, and recent developments in the financing of higher education.

679. HILL, JOHN W., and AYARS, ALBERT L. "More Money for Our Colleges," *Saturday Review*, XXXVIII (July 30, 1955), 7-10, 28-29.

Discusses the financial needs of independent colleges and universities and describes ways in which American business is giving increased support to higher education.

680. HODNETT, EDWARD. *Industry-College Relations*. Cleveland: World Publishing Co., 1955. Pp. 158.

Reports a survey made for the Conference Committee on Industry-College Relations and based on conferences with officials in colleges and industrial concerns from Ohio to Massachusetts. Three sections of the report deal with existing programs, and the fourth section discusses problems deserving joint industry-college study.

681. HOFSTADTER, RICHARD, and METZGER, WALTER P. *The Development of Academic Free-*

dom in the United States. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. Pp. xvi+528.

Traces the history of academic freedom in the United States through an analytical rather than a case-study approach. The first of two volumes produced for the American Academic Freedom Project at Columbia University.

682. HONG, HOWARD (editor). *Integration in the Christian Liberal Arts College*. Northfield, Minnesota: St. Olaf College Press, 1956. Pp. xviii+252.

Analyzes the forces bringing about the fragmentation of knowledge and traces the history of man's efforts to bring together educational thoughts, processes, and materials from Ancient Greece to mid-twentieth-century America. Asserts that the central task of the liberal arts college is the intellectual one of teaching and learning and that the locus of the problem of integration is within the curriculum and teaching rather than in such things as dormitory life, extra-curriculum activities, church and chapel, and personal relations.

683. IFFERT, ROBERT C. "Study of College Student Retention and Withdrawal," *College and University*, XXXI (Summer, 1956), 435-47.

Reviews the initial findings of a study on withdrawal of students from college prior to graduation.

684. JUSTMAN, JOSEPH, and MAIS, WALTER H. *College Teaching*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1956. Pp. viii+258.

A professor of education and a professor of physics join to discuss the goals of college teaching, the professional responsibilities and growth of the college teacher, teacher and students, the curriculum, instructional techniques, and evaluation of learning and teaching.

685. KING, FRANCIS. "The First Year of the Tuition Exchange," *Educational Record*, XXXVI (October, 1955), 349-50.

Evaluates the first-year operation of the tuition-exchange plan, whereby children of faculty members in participating institutions are enabled to attend, tuition-free, other institutions subscribing to the plan.

686. KREGER, C. W. "A Plan for More and Abler College Teachers," *Improving College and University Teaching*, IV (Spring, 1956), 45-47.

Describes a program in operation at Miami University (Ohio) for recruiting and training college instructors. Promising undergraduates are appointed as undergraduate fellows and allowed to take part in conferences on matters relating to teaching, planning courses, and college organization.

687. LAPMAN, ROBERT J., and BEUCHEL, HENRY T. "The Pressure To Teach: The University Professor and His Dilemma," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVII (February, 1956), 68-72, 114-15.

Maintains that the university professor constantly experiences pressures that force him to other concerns than teaching. States that these pressures arise from failure of the university to recognize that it has a number of different functions, that the faculty faces a variety of audiences, and that different kinds of performances are required of individual faculty members.

688. MACIVER, ROBERT M. *Academic Freedom in Our Time*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1955. Pp. xiv+330.

Assesses the significance of academic freedom against the background of the contemporary social situation. Declares that underlying the attacks upon the university is a failure to understand its worth, service, and mission. The second of two volumes produced for the American Academic Freedom Project at Columbia University.

689. MAYHEW, LEWIS. "The Content of Humanities Courses," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVII (March, 1956), 117-24, 172.

Surveys the objectives of typical courses in the humanities and observes that the title is applied to only a portion of the learning once included under it. Proposes that courses in the humanities be judged on the basis of their relevance, the kinds of skills they help to develop, and the degree to which they maintain the integrity and contribute to the unity of the college curriculum.

690. NEWSOM, CARROLL V. "Some Population Statistics and the Problems of Higher Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIX (February, 1956), 233-39.

Examines the consequences for enrolments and staffing in higher institutions of the extremely low birth rates in the 1930's and the striking increase in birth rates in the 1940's. Predicts that, following the "tidal wave," higher-educational institutions will experience a decrease in enrolments in twenty to twenty-five years as a consequence of the current decline in marriage rates.

691. RADCLIFFE COMMITTEE ON GRADUATE EDUCATION FOR WOMEN. *Graduate Education for Women: The Radcliffe Ph.D.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1956. Pp. 136.

Discusses the development of graduate education in America, the kinds of programs in which women have taken advanced study, professional status and scholarly achievement of women Ph.D.'s, the Ph.D.

and marriage, who should go to graduate school, and problems of financing graduate education.

692. REED, PHILIP D. "New Interpretations of *Quid Pro Quo*," *College and University*, XXXI (October, 1955), 23-30.

Evaluates the bases on which industry currently determines grants to higher-education institutions and discusses the kinds of information business should attempt to secure about potential grantees.

693. RIKER, HAROLD C. *Planning Functional College Housing*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. Pp. xii+240.

Reports on the current status of student housing among American colleges and universities. Data on the housing provided and the construction planned are related to changing conceptions of the purpose of residence halls in institutions of higher education.

694. SMITH, HUSTON. "Teaching to a Camera," *Educational Record*, XXXVII (January, 1956), 49-55.

Asserts that educational television is effective, not only in teaching facts, but also in changing attitudes and in stimulating persons to action. States that the future success of educational television will depend in large part on the emergence of a new kind of professional, the educational-television producer, and on the introduction of greater flexibility and variety in instructional methods.

695. SMITH, SHERMAN E., PLAUT, RICHARD L., TURNBULL, WILLIAM W., and FLYNT, RALPH C. M. "Helping Qualified Students To Continue Their Education: A Symposium," *Educational Record*, XXXVII (April, 1956), 85-93.

Four writers discuss the factors which prevent many able young people from entering college. Among the factors considered are motivation, physical maturation, effectiveness of high-school guidance, scholarship programs, and financial need. Characterizes an effective talent-identification program and discusses sources of scholarship funds.

696. STEIN, HOWARD. "The Convenient Assumption: Some Critical Comments on College Teaching," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVII (February, 1956), 87-91, 116.

Considers that an underlying cause of much poor teaching in American colleges and universities is the wide acceptance of the "convenient assumption" that "students do not want to learn." Likens the college professor to the playwright and creative artists; his responsibility is to create lectures and teaching devices which will have meaning to all students.

697. STORR, RICHARD J. "The Public Conscience of the University," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXVI (Winter, 1956), 71-84.

Sketches briefly the history of American higher education from the Revolution to the present and shows how the conceptions of the university's role in society have changed.

698. SUGG, REDDING. "Regionalism in Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXVII (February, 1956), 73-79.

Assesses the experiences of the seven years of operation of the Southern Regional Education Board, which pioneered in regional co-operation and is the most fully developed of several such arrangements now in operation. Discusses factors leading to the development of the arrangement, the problems faced, the solutions reached, and the relevance of the board's experience to future educational planning.

699. TEAD, ORDWAY. "Faculty Freedom: Administratively Viewed," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XLI (December, 1955), 523-33.

Advances the thesis that the most serious threat to faculty freedom comes from within the college, from faculty insensitivity about urgent educational problems and from complacency about established purposes and processes. Affirms that administration has the twofold function of (1) stimulating the faculty to view, and act upon, institution-wide problems and to be concerned about the total educational experience of the student, and (2) assuring that the energies of the staff are conserved and that their rights are protected. Suggests ways for increasing faculty participation in institutional planning.

700. THACKREY, RUSSELL I. "Some Facts on College Enrolment Trends in the Past Fifteen Years," *Educational Record*, XXXVII (July, 1956), 189-91.

Examines fall enrolments for 1939 and 1954 and concludes that the shift in the relative distribution of enrolments in public and private institutions is due to the striking increase in attendance at public non-degree-granting institutions. Shows that the degree-granting private colleges have kept pace with similar public institutions in substantially increasing enrolments over a period when the college-age population decreased.

701. TRIPPET, BYRON K. "Teaching: A Teacher's Appraisal," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XLII (March, 1956), 86-90.

Raises questions about methods of appraising the effectiveness of teaching. Suggests as possible approaches: (1) observing the extent to which a teacher understands and identifies his teaching with the ultimate and total ends of the college; (2) applying a few of the classical pronouncements on the role of teaching, such as those of Newman; and (3) observing the extent to which the teacher touches the lives of students outside as well as inside the classroom.

702. WALKER, EDWIN R. "A New Plan for Financing a College Education," *School and Society*, LXXXIII (January 7, 1956), 10-11.

Describes a plan recently introduced at Queens College, Charlotte, North Carolina, whereby parents are allowed to spread the cost of their children's college education over a period of from six to eight years.

703. WILSON, LOGAN. "Academic Administration: Its Abuses and Uses," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XLI (Winter, 1955), 684-92.

Asserts that among the causes of poor administrative practices are the lack of adequate training for administrators in higher education equivalent to that for junior executives in business and industry; the lack of clarity in the formulation of policies and objectives; inadequacies in structure; and pressures on the administration that make it increasingly remote from the academic staff. Outlines the "uses" of administration as maintaining and increasing the strength of the faculty, allocating resources, keeping balance in the over-all program, and catalyzing the diversity of elements into an effective whole.

704. WRISTON, HENRY M. "Looking at the College Presidency in Retrospect," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XLI (December, 1955), 504-18.

Presents reminiscences of the president emeritus of Brown University after thirty years of experience in college and university administration. Describes the multiplicity of tasks devolving upon the college president and makes suggestions for reforms. Discusses the function of the president as educational leader; his relations to students, faculty, and board; and his responsibilities for public relations.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

EARL S. JOHNSON, *Theory and Practice of the Social Studies*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1956. Pp. xx+476. \$5.75.

Earl S. Johnson presents, in *Theory and Practice of the Social Studies*, "one man's view of what the social studies are and what he believes is involved in the teaching-learning of them" (p. xii). Since this view comes out of his rich experience as a sociologist and educator, and from one who has worked intimately with teachers and student-teachers of the social studies, Johnson's book is a service to the profession and to laymen who would be informed about the teaching of the social studies.

The first portion of the book (chapters i-iv) examines the student, the teaching-learning climate, and the teacher-student relationship. Needs, rapport, discipline, and goals of education are explained in the language of social growth, social class, and the development of the power of inquiry.

The second portion (chapters v-vii) describes modern society and its major problem. The social order is viewed through its processes (competition, conflict, accommodation, and assimilation), its components (the symbiotic, the economic, the political, and the cultural), and its human relations. The interplay of persons and institutions raises the major problem: the problem of valuation of our society and of being able to make needed changes.

The third portion (chapters viii-xiii) examines general education, the place of social studies in general education, and the place of attitude formulation and the method of inquiry.

A fourth portion (chapters xiv-xx) presents teaching-learning in the social studies. Here is a full consideration of the psychology of learning, aims of the social studies, evaluation procedures, communication, discussion, and transfer of learning.

A fifth portion (chapters xxi-xxvi) gives an excellent outline of the social-process approach to educational planning and applies it to five

perspectives on human affairs: cultural change, culture, and human nature (history and comparative cultures); conflict of values (social problems); associations and the problem of consensus (civics); unlimited wants and scarce goods (economics); and spatial distribution of social phenomena (geography and human ecology).

Concluding chapters examine the use of the community and the significance of the disciplines of imagination, precision, appreciation, and synthesis.

This book is a welcome antidote to the uncritical attacks on social education and to the superficial handbooks on method, without a content. Unlike the attacks, it shows that knowledge must be understood, must be emotionally felt, must involve participation of the student in inquiry, and must be related to attitude formulation and action. In contrast to the handbooks, it shows that learning must deal with man in society, using the competent interpretations and insights of scholars. In the process, Johnson examines the many "methods" (approaches to organization) and points out their inadequacies.

A major contribution of this volume is the clear presentation and analysis of the social-process approach, first formulated by Leon C. Marshall for the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. Marshall presented the social processes as a tentative frame of reference for seeing all the social studies. Johnson states:

We need such a view, not only as a matrix within which to place and relate individual and social needs but also in order to look at human life as something more than the shifting relations of bits of human matter in space and time [p. 313].

The illustrations of the application of this view to the social studies should lead to better teaching.

The teacher who wishes to have specific procedures to use in a classroom from day to day

will be disappointed. Johnson feels that theory and practice are parts of the same whole but that principles must be applied with understanding, not by rote:

What teachers need is a broad related education in social knowledge, mastery of the method of inquiry, a knowledge of the life and times of their students, and imagination enough to put these together into a dynamic demonstration which will catch the interests and engage the loyalties of students [p. 203].

Enough illustrations are given, however, to satisfy the alert teacher.

The book is written in a conversational style, interesting and readable. The ideas are not simple and will encourage rereading and analysis. All teachers in general education and the social studies should read this volume.

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HENRY B. MCDANIEL, with G. A. SHAFTEL, *Guidance in the Modern School*. New York 19: Dryden Press, 1956. Pp. xvi+526. \$5.75.

Guidance in the Modern School is intended to serve as a basic textbook for those who plan to enter the field of guidance. The emphasis is on guidance as a whole-school program involving the teacher, the administrator, the specialist, and the parent. McDaniel, in the book's Preface, further characterizes the scope of the volume:

This book deals with the four aspects of guidance which the writer sees as critical areas of study for the counselor in the modern school, whether elementary, secondary, or collegiate. These areas are the organization of the school for identifying and serving the needs of young people, the systematic study of the individual, the informational program, and the principles and practices of counseling [p. viii].

Part One, "Meeting the Need for Guidance," deals with philosophy and concept at the elementary and secondary-school level. Part Two, "The Adjustive Function of Guidance," discusses types of individual problems; principles of counseling; and an analysis of the counseling process, with emphasis on assessing abilities, aptitudes, interests, and adjustment. Part Three, "The Distributive Function of Guidance," is concerned with occupational information and vocational counseling. Part Four, "The Adaptive Function of Guidance," deals with counselor-staff responsibilities, the application

of individual-inventory data to the instructional program, and group activities in guidance. Part Five, "Evaluation," considers the process of evaluation, counselor qualifications, and new directions in guidance. The four appendixes of Part Six conclude the book.

It is doubtful that the book adds to the field of guidance much that is essentially new. It is, however, an excellent statement of basic concepts, made especially interesting by many real-life case illustrations. At the end of each chapter are problems and projects which reveal the author's firsthand acquaintance with his field.

Throughout the volume the co-operative approach is emphasized, the counselor's major role being treated as one of thinking *with* students and supplying needed information about them. An eclectic view of counseling is presented, with the individual inventory as the basis of the concept.

Guidance as a *facilitative* service is, perhaps, a point of view which might be said to characterize the book:

Guidance services in education are facilitative in the sense that they do not themselves undertake to carry out the objectives of educational programs but rather provide aids to the pupil, the teacher, and the administrator which are intended to facilitate the development of the pupil and the success of the teacher's work with him [p. 30].

Guidance in the Modern School will be well received by those who feel that many writers in the field of guidance have minimized the role of the classroom teacher. Those who believe in a counselor-centered guidance program may be disappointed. They are likely to feel that the counselor plays a larger role in direct learning situations than that assigned by the author. Those who are critical of the structured counseling interview will find that the author's eclecticism does not draw heavily from the non-directivists; a mildly directive concept of counseling is presented.

The book can be recommended to those who seek a readable, well-organized, and practical textbook.

FRANK S. ENDICOTT

Northwestern University

HARRISON BULLOCK, *Helping the Non-reading Pupil in the Secondary School*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956. Pp. viii+180. \$3.75.

This book is designed to assist teachers at the secondary-school level in meeting the needs of nonreading pupils. Specifically, it attempts to guide teachers in helping these pupils learn to read, in understanding their problems, and in adapting the curriculum to their levels of reading. Throughout the book the author stresses the need for the student to gain satisfaction and to benefit from his classroom experiences.

The "nonreading pupils" are defined in this report as students who are unable to make use of reading in the classroom. Thus the report embraces the severely retarded readers who have a limited sight vocabulary as well as those who can read at fourth- or fifth-grade level but cannot read the classroom assignments.

In identifying the nonreading pupil, the author points out that standardized reading tests and most group intelligence tests are not dependable, and he offers substitutes which are more acceptable. Illustrations are provided by Bullock's brief case studies of five nonreading pupils, particularly designed to help teachers gain insight into pupils' development, feelings, and needs. He points out that each teacher's responsibility is to determine favorable factors and factors making it difficult for pupils to learn to read. "The teacher should be ready to utilize and reinforce the favorable factors; where the obstacles are too strong, the teacher should be prepared to help the pupil in other ways without insisting unduly on the reading" (p. 35).

There is a brief discussion of the responsibilities and achievements of the elementary school, emphasizing the fact that, when a pupil reaches the age and maturity to be sent to the secondary school, regardless of what he has accomplished in reading, he is promoted. Among those academically unprepared for secondary school are pupils of all mental levels: those with normal or superior intelligence, as well as the mentally retarded. Objectives for the education of each group are presented, and attention is called to the fact that the latter is least "likely to progress far in reading" (p. 58).

The problems of the nonreading pupil in the regular classroom are highlighted by a description of how several teachers provided learning experiences for pupils of this type. Instruction ranges from having pupils copy verbatim from a book, to oral discussions, to developing experience stories which each student can read. The advantages and limitations of each procedure are pointed out, accompanied by suggestions for giving specific help to nonreading

pupils in the regular classroom.

There is a chapter on special reading classes, showing organization, methods, and materials. Another is devoted to individual instruction and is illustrated generously by a case study. The last chapter deals with the school's responsibility for the nonreading pupils and concludes that the teacher must meet the pupil's "needs for success, for recognition, and for acceptance as a worthy individual" (p. 175).

This book is written simply and directly. It is generously illustrated by case studies and excerpts from interviews with actual cases. Most secondary-school teachers will immediately identify some of their own pupils who resemble these cases. Furthermore, the information supplied frequently develops from material of this specific type and is given in an interesting and practical way. While it is impossible to cover the entire range of problems with suggested solutions, some of the most important ones are included in this book.

The reviewer finds little in this book with which to disagree, except perhaps the undue emphasis on the kinesthetic method for developing word recognition. Suggestions for materials to be used with nonreading pupils could be extended somewhat beyond those given.

This book should be of great value to all secondary-school teachers and should be in the professional library of every secondary school. Most teachers are anxious to help all of their students, but they lack the understanding and know-how to deal with the nonreading pupil. Many books on this topic are technical or cover only one aspect of the problem. *Helping the Non-reading Pupil in the Secondary School* covers sufficient ground to assist teachers in any subject and in any size or type of school. Perhaps its greatest contribution lies in helping the teacher to know these children, to realize how and why they behave as they do, and to give them sympathetic understanding in addition to a better education.

HELEN M. ROBINSON

University of Chicago



VERNON E. ANDERSON, *Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co., 1956. Pp. x+468. \$5.50.

Regardless of all that is currently said and written about curriculum-making, actual im-

provement in curriculum practices in the classroom and other learning spheres of the educational program proceeds very slowly. Part of this lag is due, of course, to such impediments as professional inertia, uncertainty regarding who is responsible for curriculum-making, and administrative fears of criticism or open opposition from school-staff or community members. An element affecting these and similar obstacles to curriculum advance in the schools, however, is the fact that the curriculum process has not been sufficiently stressed in our teacher-training programs nor effectively clarified in our professional discussion and literature. Criteria used in appraising newly appearing books on curriculum should include these practical factors.

The content of *Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Improvement* is organized in five parts. The chapters in Part 1 deal with the meaning of curriculum study, curriculum as change in human relations, and the group process in curriculum study; in Part 2, with teacher orientation on the curriculum, social and cultural values, the learning process, and the community; in Part 3, with staff organization for curriculum study, citizen participation, curriculum workshop, and curriculum evaluation and research; in Part 4, with continuity and co-ordination, balance and integration, and organization of materials; and in Part 5, with unity in classroom experiences, planning class goals and experiences, and evaluating progress toward goals. The main content is preceded by a preface and is followed by a name index and a subject index. A list of selected reading references concludes each part, and a series of "Study Steps" is provided for each chapter. There are no pictorial illustrations.

The merit of the book is the sound, yet refreshing, educational philosophy, which is clearly stated at the outset and consistently appears throughout the discussion of the various problems and topics. The content is definitely comprehensive, each curriculum element being analyzed, often under as many as eight or nine numbered subdivisions, and discussed at some length. The principles upon which the author states the book is based are well selected, and their influence in shaping the discussion is clearly evident. Significant curriculum factors and relationships, such as the participation of lay citizens, the use of community resources, the importance of human relations, the nature of the pupil, and the like, are included and their relation to the total educational program

as well as to the curriculum is discussed and appraised.

A position concerning which some readers may have certain reservations is expressed in the statement: "Those who want to find an easy way, to be given final answers, or to be told what to do will have to seek elsewhere" (p. 3). This may appear to some as an extreme statement, implying criticism of administrators and teachers who want and need more concise expositions of practical curriculum-making than are found in most books on curriculum. In their fear (often justified) of stressing the mechanical, writers on the curriculum appear to have gone to the other extreme of being too broad and exhaustive regarding foundations, of giving wide choices between numerous procedures, and of including other educational areas such as methods, administration, guidance, and the like, with the result that administrators and teachers are left confused and without an adequate conception of the basic steps of the curriculum process. In the opinion of the reviewer, writers on the curriculum could present established steps in the curriculum-making process, with a clarifying outline of the total curriculum and also with a clear treatment of the relation of the philosophy, principles, materials, and procedures (with which this book abounds) to the practical steps and procedures helpful to classroom teachers. It should be re-emphasized that this reservation is directed to the current (and widely accepted) mode of writing about the curriculum rather than exclusively to that of the volume reviewed.

Principles and Practices of Curriculum Improvement merits wide reading by staff members of teacher-training institutions and departments and by administrators and teachers, as well as extensive use in curriculum committees and workshops. It should also be of marked service to instructors and students in either undergraduate or graduate courses on the curriculum.

PAUL R. PIERCE

Purdue University



Fitness for Secondary School Youth. Edited by KARL W. BOOKWALTER and CAROLYN W. BOOKWALTER. Washington 6: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1956. Pp. 150. \$2.00.

Concern about the fitness of youth and of general populations is not new. It is expressed whenever any effort of national importance is contemplated. Today, concern about fitness of youth has caused powerful groups—governmental, professional, and voluntary—to study the problem anew and to attempt to come forth with realistic plans for action. For those persons or groups dealing with youth in several capacities, it is helpful to have access to data from the many studies on the subject such as the recent contribution by Karl W. and Carolyn Bookwalter supplies. These two eminent researchers have brought to bear some of the more significant data from numbers of independent studies and have also presented discussions of their own findings.

The publication of *Fitness for Secondary School Youth* is the culmination of a project of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. Interest shown by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals prompted the inclusion of many articles on fitness in its own professional publication and resulted in a collaborative effort to present, in book form, the latest understandings of total fitness and ways and means for achieving it.

Committees composed of leaders in the fields of fitness and general education were responsible for planning of, and for major contributions to, the project. The recognized need for "total fitness" to meet the complexities of modern life rather than the need for physical fitness alone led to discussions of realistic contributions that the school program in health education, physical education, recreation, and outdoor education can make to physical, emotional, mental, and social fitness. Concise definitions of these categories and descriptions of what is known about each provide bases on which educators in these fields can plan and execute

school programs for all youth.

Pertinent and, in nearly all cases, detailed practical suggestions for implementing such a program are presented. Program content which is discussed runs the gamut from physical skills to mental health. Specifics include general and specific objectives; general characteristics of secondary-school youth; total needs; effective methods; "regular" classes; adapted, restricted, and/or remedial programs; development of skills, strength, and interests; activity variety; community interest and co-operation; prevention and control of disease and accidents; nutrition; assessment of individual health status; use of facilities; interschool athletics; intramural and extramural programs; camping education; total school planning; and a host of others which are of vital importance in a concerted approach to assist all youth to become as nearly "fit" as possible.

It is difficult not to emphasize, at greater length than is possible in this discussion, the material additional to the above. In this dilemma, attention must be called to the section on "Recommended Criteria for Secondary Schools." This section contains suggestions for use by school administrators in evaluating the school program for fitness, which, if followed, might well point the way to vital improvement.

School administrators; teachers in all educational fields but, in particular, those in health education, physical education, and recreation; leaders of community organizations; leaders of youth groups—these, and many others, will find in this compilation by the Bookwalters a brief, concise, yet all-inclusive aid in their efforts to assist youth to become and to remain "fit" for effective participation in today's world.

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